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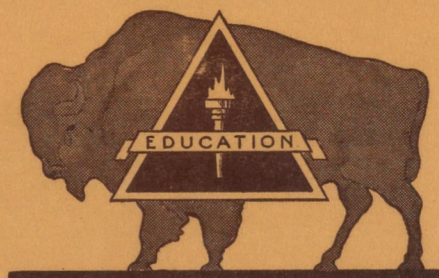


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## ANNUAL EDUCATION ALUMNI LECTURE

### EDUCATION ON THE MOVE

given by

**IVAN L. HAMILTON**

February 23, 1963

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA



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## EDUCATION ON THE MOVE

Madam President, honoured guests, members of the Education Alumni Association. Let me first thank Miss Somerville for her gracious introduction. It is an honour to be here; to have been asked to give the annual address to your Association. It is really a double honour for I am not an alumnus of the Faculty of Education, but rather one of the eight precursors who were products of the struggle led by Dr. Woods for the formation of that Faculty.

And what changes have taken place since the early thirties; from post-graduate training by the summer school route to accommodation in a palatial hut to the beautiful building we are in today! During this struggle for greater recognition some 2500 teachers have become alumni of the Faculty.

The first part of the address this afternoon will consist of brief references to a number of changes and problems in the field of education. The second part will be the development of one of these problems in some detail.

Education is on the move indeed, but it is not moving fast enough. Educators are aware of the problems and the needs of the day, but problems, and change, and crises wait for no one. How can education meet the tempo of the times when it is ground out under the millstones of traditionalism, automation, the clamors of the public, politics, conflicting ideologies, low standards of teacher qualifications, fears and uncertainties, the demands of industry, and the deadly slowness characteristic of public business? The wonder is that so much has been achieved under such adverse circumstances.

Education is in a bad way. Criticism falls upon it from every quarter and from all sections of the population, professionals and laymen alike. There is a constant stream of invective against educational performance and theories as to the cure of its ills. Magazines and papers are full of it. Johnny can't read. So little for the mind. How about spelling? What's wrong with the standard? Education has gone soft. Why do the good teachers quit? Who stole our phonics?

If I may digress, phonics are arrangements of sounds, the use of which is of great importance in the teaching of reading. They can become an intriguing game to pupils. The fat cat sat. What! Where? Why? On the mat to bat the rat. Phonics are also of interest to adults, poets or otherwise. A fortuitous juxtaposition of sounds often produces interesting results.

For example, a parishioner met his minister on the street and stopped to inquire as to the progress of the church's financial drive. Progress of the drive was so poor, replied the minister, that they were now calling it the "Shellout Falter Plan."

Another rather old illustration concerns an African king who was at war with a neighbor. Calamitous news was brought to him that his forces had been defeated and that the enemy would overrun the capital

village in another day. Decision was made to evacuate the area. This was easy for flocks and herds and a few chattels but not for the king's most cherished possession, a solid ivory throne, much too heavy to be carried any distance. The royal palace differed from the common grass huts in having a ceiling and after due deliberation it was decided to hide the throne in the attic. This was done and the king lay down to rest in preparation for an early departure. Unfortunately, during the night the heavy throne broke through the fragile ceiling, fell on the king putting a sad end to all his earthly worries.

The moral, of course, is that people who live in grass houses should never stow thrones.

Phonics are fun.

Let us consider briefly some of the changes that have taken place and problems which have developed in recent years.

Whom do we teach? Is our clientele the same as that of sixty years ago? In the elementary field, yes, but in the high school, no, and therein lies a problem.

If conditions were ideal with increments at Grade I constant and all pupils passing, the ratio of the top four grades to the bottom eight grades would be one half, or 50%. From the Department of Education report for 1903, we find that the enrolment ratio of Grades IX - XII to Grades I - VIII was 5.3%. In 1913 it was 6.3%; 1923—9.8%; 1933—15.7% 1943—19.1%; 1953—17.6%, and in 1962—29.2%.

This increased retention in the high school is the result of many factors. Social changes that demanded a higher standard of education, the impetus of the depression, and an advancing technology that made jobs scarcer and requirements higher, all played a part. The end result, however, is that many students entering high school today have neither the ability to handle, nor an inclination for the courses being offered.

What change has there been in the academic background of those who teach in our schools? From Department of Education reports we find that in 1921 only 3.7% of our teachers held Collegiate certificates; in 1931—8%; in 1941—17.3%; in 1951—17.3%; and in 1961—21.8%.

The ideal of "every teacher a degree teacher" seems slow in coming although it is already in effect in other parts of the world. The minimum requirement for junior and senior high school teachers in Grosse Point Village is a Master's Degree.

For thirty years there has been talk of a minimum standard of two years of professional training. Today teachers are accepted who have little, or sometimes no training. Admittedly, there is a serious shortage factor involved. England maintains a three-year minimum.

The problem of curriculum is a very real one. If grandfather could come back to school he could fit quite nicely into the course of almost any high school. It is difficult to make changes in the curriculum for it is hallowed by tradition. The man who casually accepts the latest detergent or the newest mechanical gadget, and who readily swallows any pill

handed to him will defend to the last the educational philosophy of his youth. Even that sound and extremely well promoted new general course landed with a dull thud. The curriculum might justly be described as the sacred cow of education.

The only significant progress has been in the technical field. In this day when rapid social and technical changes make ever new demands what are we offering our students for tomorrow?

Let us examine the financial structure of education. We find that on the provincial level in 1903, education accounted for 19.5% of the budget. The figure for the 1962-63 year was 30.1%, or 33.8% if capital account is included. The other main source of revenue is local taxation. Education accounted for 13.2% of the city of Winnipeg budget in 1903 and 36.6% in 1962. With costs of education soaring it is fitting and proper for citizens to inquire into the effectiveness of the product they are receiving.

Mechanization has reached the school. I can remember years ago approaching a board regarding the immediate need of a phonograph, a portable Victrola, to be exact. After much questioning and solemn discussion it was decided that one should be purchased. In contrast, in one school of our system there are three record players, two pianos, a film strip projector, an opaque projector, a movie projector, two Gestetners, one spirit duplicator, an adding machine, seven typewriters, intercom, several radios, a tape recorder, television, and three phones with four extensions. Give us programmed learning and we'll have made it. Doubtless, I am in part responsible for this; nevertheless, from under a flood of mimeographed notes and printed workbooks I maintain that the key figure in education is still the teacher in the classroom.

One area which is receiving much attention, and in which great progress has been made, is recognition of the exceptional child. Educators have been concerned with the problem of individual differences for a long time. As early as 1888 the Pueblo, Colorado, schools developed an experimental plan, and since then various methods have been tried until now, in Manitoba, we find streaming, grouping, unit promotions, remedial classes, guidance clinics, enrichment, ungraded classes, major work classes, and many modifications and combinations of these. This is a live topic today and much has been written about it.

An important advance in our province has been the establishment of Secondary School Divisions. This is, however, but a half step except in most large centres where all grades are under the same board. The most effective operation of our educational system will come only when we have complete co-ordination of instruction from Grade 1 to Grade XII.

Among the many changes which could be cited is the somewhat significant trend toward the gathering together of teachers for the consideration of the varied problems of education. Our Division, to date this year, has had twelve invitations to join conferences, national and provincial, general and specialized. The day of two annual conventions, local and provincial, is gone. Education is indeed on the move. And so are educators.



It is likely that you are familiar with most of the generalizations which have been mentioned thus far. I would like now to branch off into an examination of a phase of a phase of a phase of one of the problems considered in this lengthy preamble and, perhaps, deal with matters not so well known. The main topic is individual differences in children, the sub topic the unit method of promotion, and the sub sub topic the status of accelerates in this plan.

It is realized that, as alumni of the Faculty, most of you will be in the high school field, but, no doubt, some will be teaching in the elementary grades, are or will be principals of elementary schools, or will in due time receive the products of various types of acceleration. The information on this topic comes from a report prepared for the board of Flin Flon School Division on the unit method of promotion as used in the elementary schools of the Division. With the exception of some deletions the text of the report will now become the text of the address.

### *Background*

In the spring of 1956, after considerable discussion by staff and board, and encouragement from the school inspector, decision was made to adopt a modification of the unit method of promotion. This system originated in the Hamilton, Ontario, schools in 1938 and is now being used in a number of large centres in that province and a few points in other parts of the Dominion. Briefly, it consists of dividing the work of each elementary grade into three units. Very bright children take four units of work in a year and very slow children two units in a year. After three years the first group will be accelerated by one grade and the other group retarded by one grade. The majority of pupils proceed at the normal rate of three units per year.

The basic concept of the plan is the recognition of individual differences through allowing students to progress at the rate best suited to their ability. This is in line with a long standing policy of the Department of Education in Manitoba.

If a group can cover more than is set forth in the curriculum for a year, it should be encouraged to do so. Whether this extra work will be the work prescribed for the next grade, or work to enrich the programme of the grade, should depend on both the ability and maturity of pupils . . .

This means that promotions are not annual events; they are made whenever a group of pupils is ready to advance to a new type of work, or a new division of a subject. Slow pupils should not drop back and repeat a year, they advance as continuously but more slowly than the others.

The unit system of promotion was implemented in Flin Flon elementary schools in the fall of 1956 when the top pupils of Grades I, II and III were assigned to a four unit programme and the very slow pupils of these grades designated at two units. The original accelerates of Grade I are now in Grade VIII, the II's in Grade IX and the III's in Grade X.

The purpose of this study is to secure an evaluation of the unit method of promotion at its present stage of development. The length of time needed for proof of worth is an inherent disadvantage of all long

term projects; nevertheless, it was felt that the experiment has now reached a point where at least some of its strengths and weaknesses should be apparent.

Emphasis has been placed upon an examination of acceleration as a result of the considerable interest shown by staff and parents in an optional procedure affecting students already doing excellent work. No report is being made at this time on two unit pupils. These are pupils who have been faced with the alternative of repeating a grade or of progressing at a slower rate with the absorption of a one grade loss over a three year period.

## STUDY PROCEDURE

### *Group Selection*

Records of 76 of the original 90-odd accelerates were available, some having moved away and a few withdrawn early in the experiment. Seventy-six non-accelerated pupils of Grades I, II, and III with equal standing and equal mental ability were selected from pre-1956 classes to form a control group.

The original group, chosen from 850 pupils, had no examination averages below 85% and an average I.Q. of 122.1. The control group was chosen from 917 pupils, had no examination averages below 85%, and an average I.Q. of 122.2. Selection of the control group was made on original records without reference to subsequent careers. I.Q.'s of individuals are averages of tests taken at different periods.

Careful checks were made to determine if the two groups were on a sound comparable basis. Individual scores were tabulated to bring out any imbalance between groups at different grade levels or at different I.Q. levels.

Examination averages of each group for November, of the seventh year after selection, were taken as a basis for analysis and results tabulated according to different factors. Grade averages vary from year to year; therefore, the marks of Grade VIII and IX pupils were adjusted to make results of the two groups comparable: 1.7% in Grade VIII and .7% in Grade IX. Since the Grade X accelerates had overtaken the non-accelerates, both groups have been in the same class for three years, thus making adjustment of their marks unnecessary.

### *Examination of the Data*

Table III gives the distribution of students according to percentage levels. It would appear that the majority are doing quite well in both groups, that is, if averages above 70% are considered satisfactory. Two of the accelerates fell to the point where one has cancelled out his grade gained and another seems to be following the same path.

A problem arose as to the gauge to be used in determining satisfactory or unsatisfactory performance, the common 50% level being considered unsuitable for this group. An arbitrary standard of the 75th

percentile was finally chosen as a fair minimum requirement for these top students and the marks re-tabulated on this basis. The results are given in Table IV.

The first point to be noted is that, while most students were progressing satisfactorily, 24 in each group were below the fourth quartile. This was not unexpected since education has a long history of excellent students who have not achieved their potential in later years. While it is gratifying to find that an experiment has, on the whole, justified itself, it is a matter of concern to determine the losses and isolate the underlying causes behind them. A number of factors, applying equally to both groups, are suggested below but without amplification, a separate paper on these underachievers being planned for the near future.

TABLE III  
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS ON BASIS  
OF NOVEMBER, 1962, AVERAGES

Averages	Accelerated Group				Non-Accelerated Group			
	VIII	IX	X	Total	VIII	IX	X	Total
90+%	3	2	1	6	3	3	2	8
85-89	5	8	7	20	8	4	3	15
80-84	9	3	6	18	4	7	1	12
75-79	6	3	3	12	6	4	8	18
70-74	6	4	1	11	2	4	6	12
65-69		4	1	5		1	2	3
60-64		1	1	2		1	3	4
55-59		1		1			1	1
50-54						2		2
—50			1	1			1	1
Totals	29	26	21	76	23	26	27	76

TABLE IV  
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT AVERAGES AS ABOVE  
OR BELOW THE 75th PERCENTILE

	Accelerated Group				Non-Accelerated Group			
	VIII	IX	X	Total	VIII	IX	X	Total
Above 75th Percentile	19	16	17	52	16	17	19	52
Below 75th Percentile	79.3%	77.1	71.3		79.3%	77.1	71.3	
	10	10	4	24	7	9	8	24
Totals	29	26	21	76	23	26	27	76



1. The development of outside interests
2. The disturbing effects of adolescence
3. Emotional crises
4. Deterioration of relationships with the school
5. Illness
6. Changing home conditions, or continuing conditions which did not affect the student at a period when no home study was required.

Of considerable interest is the fact that non-accelerated students, with the advantage of a year in maturity and an extra year in which to build up a better grounding, could do no better than the accelerates. It should be pointed out that the major premise of all acceleration plans is that studies should be at the highest achievable level if brain power is to be developed to capacity. Might not the relatively poor showing of the control group be ascribed to their years of dawdling with work that offered no challenge?

The matter of 'who failed' warrants some comment. When the I.Q.'s of the 48 students classified as unsatisfactory were tabulated as above or below the average I.Q. of 122.1 it was found that 12 were above and 36 below which indicates that low ability is a liability. This point is reinforced by the fact that when all I.Q.'s below 115 were examined it was found that 10 out of 22 did not make the standard. On the other hand four students with I.Q.'s in the 130 range did not make it either so one would gather that superior mental ability is nice to have but no guarantee of success.

It is suggested that unless exceptional academic and personal qualifications are present a borderline I.Q. of about 115 should be used in selecting students for acceleration. It is also suggested that such a programme should be delayed until Grade III in the interest of more reliable data on student potential. These points have been observed in the selection of subsequent groups for the local plan.

Compared with girls, boys appear to be a double liability in an accelerated programme, possibly as a result of greater sports consciousness, but possibly also from a stronger aversion to conformity. Taking the groups as a whole, 27 boys out of 67 and 21 girls out of 85 were below the standard set. Percentages: boys 40.3%, girls 24.7%. Average I.Q.—boys 122.39, girls 121.9.

### *Generalizations*

It might be profitable at this point to consider some of the questions asked and doubts expressed by parents, teachers, and Home and School Associations both before and after the inception of the scheme. Most parental questions have been directed toward the accelerated part of the plan, have seldom been on its academic validity, and may be grouped roughly as pertaining to immaturity, separation, and work load.

Should a pupil be allowed to seek his proper intellectual level or should he be required to remain at his level of social maturity? With social maturity as variable as it is in the average class there is as much doubt about the achievement of proper social levels as there is about intellectual levels. Overage is a much more serious problem; yet this has not been

questioned in connection with the two unit groups. There is some reason to believe that many students enjoy the distinction of association with an older group. Maximum acceleration allowed is one year.

More weight might be given to the grief caused by the separation of pupils from their friends, something which occurs in the second year of the plan and affects both two and four uniters. This is a matter of real concern to some pupils although difficult to avoid in any school. Such are the exigencies of area pupil distribution, class distribution, and subject selection, that few students go through their school life in the same class as their friends of the early elementary years. The unit system adds somewhat to the difficulties of an already existing situation.

Another doubt expressed by parents was that the student would have to work harder therefore imposing an undesirable limit on his other activities. This was the stand of almost all of the few who withdrew their children from the plan. The question has seldom been doubt of academic success or fear of stress. Unfavorable reaction to the latter are usually confined to overachievers.

From discussing such matters with parents one is led to believe that frequently these fears are those of the parents rather than of the students.

From the standpoint of the teacher the unit system has involved a considerable amount of extra work and a long, long wait for results. It is easy enough to justify the unit plan, and for that matter, any other plan, on theoretical grounds; but to those in the field something more tangible than pious hope is needed. This is particularly true for new teachers on the staff who have found themselves facing a system wholly unfamiliar as to method as well as to philosophical background.

Has the unit system of promotion justified itself? The data above show that it has for the four unit groups. When accelerates can equal non-accelerates to what can the result be attributed unless it be to more efficient thinking, or better work habits, or both?

The teacher still has slow pupils to contend with regardless of the grouping system. The chief difference between the grade a year promotions and the unit method is that part of the excessive time formerly spent trying to get slow pupils through a grade is now spent on previously neglected accelerates.

The growing trend toward recognition of the needs of exceptional children has resulted in a variety of solutions, all of which are alike in creating more work for both the classroom teacher and the administrative staff. It is obvious that the full success of every such plan is dependent upon the enthusiasm and co-operation of the teaching staff and this in turn upon confidence that the project is achieving worthwhile ends.

This report has been concerned primarily with the progress of an accelerated group after six years of participation in an experiment. While results appear favourable at this stage of the plan, reassessments should be made periodically until the group has completed the high school programme.

Two related studies have been planned. One will be a detailed survey of the students who did not come up to expectations and will probably be of a case history type. The other will be a study of the two unit group. While this part of the promotion scheme has met with general approval it should be evaluated by determining the relative progress of two groups—one of two uniters and the other a comparable group of pupils who were required to repeat their grade.

#### *Conclusions*

1. Accelerated students are progressing satisfactorily as a group.
2. Some accelerated students are below the standard expected of those having exceptional ability.
3. An extra year of study and maturity did not enable the non-accelerates to do any better than the accelerates.
4. More boys than girls were below the arbitrary standard.
5. While the results show an expected correlation between mental ability and achievement there were a number of wide deviations from the normal.
6. Unless exceptional academic and personal qualifications are present a minimum I.Q. of 115 should be observed in the selection of pupils for acceleration. Acceleration should start in Grade III.
7. The following studies should be made:
  - (a) Periodic checks on the progress of these groups should be made until they have completed the high school programme.
  - (b) Further studies should be made of the causes underlying the unsatisfactory performance of some students of both groups.
  - (c) A report should be made on the progress of a two unit group and a comparable group of repeaters.

One of the problems of educators dealing with acceleration programmes of all types is the responsibility assumed by the school in advising parents to accept acceleration. What happens when a 90% student drops to 70% six or seven years later? What answer is there to a parental statement, however ungrounded, that had the pupil been left alone he would still have an average of 90%? Most parents adopt a reasonable attitude in these circumstances; nevertheless, we should be prepared with some sort of evidence that refusal of acceleration is no guarantee against deterioration of standing. The report just given has been an attempt to secure valid statistical data on this point, not only for the benefit of parents, but to assure teachers that they are not promoting a false cause. This type of evidence has been somewhat lacking for unit promotions.

After seven years of wandering and thirty-seven years as a teacher I have reached a few conclusions regarding education, admittedly unrelated to the topic of the day but of value if one believes in basing decisions upon certain philosophical hitching posts.

I believe the primary function of education to be the communication of a way of life to those coming after us;

that the keystone of the whole educational structure is the teacher in the classroom;

that the impact of a teacher's personal philosophy long outlasts factual knowledge;

that the challenge of the day is to the teacher rather than to the layman and the future of our educational programme dependent upon the paths we choose.



# THE ART OF TEACHING

By R. L. GORDON

Headmaster

St. John's-Ravencourt School

Special Meeting of Teachers, New Education Building,

University of Manitoba, November, 1962

The art of teaching, mis-applied, is the most dangerous of all the arts. A dishonest painter or an insensitive pianist can, at worst, merely delude gullible people into believing that a shoddy performance is a masterpiece and thereby corrupt taste, but lazy, timid, ignorant or deluded teachers can corrupt a generation.

"On the evening of May 10, 1933, some four and a half months after Hitler became Chancellor, there occurred in Berlin a scene which had not been witnessed in the Western world since the late Middle Ages. At about midnight a torchlight parade of thousands of students ended at a square on Unter den Linden opposite the University of Berlin. Torches were put to a huge pile of books that had been gathered there, and as the flames enveloped them more books were thrown on the fire until some twenty thousand books had been consumed. Similar scenes took place in several other cities. The book burning had begun.

"Many of the books tossed into the flames in Berlin that night by the joyous students under the approving eye of Dr. Goebbels had been written by authors of world reputation. They included, among German writers, Thomas and Heinrich Mann, Lion Feuchtwanger, Jakob Wassermann, Arnold and Stefan Zweig, Erich Maria Remarque, Walther Rathenau, Albert Einstein, Alfred Kerr and Hugo Preuss, the last named being the scholar who drafted the Weimar Constitution. But not only the works of dozens of *German* writers were burned. A good many *foreign* authors were also included: Jack London, Upton Sinclair, Helen Keller, Margaret Sanger, H. G. Wells, Havelock Ellis, Arthur Schnitzler, Freud, Gide, Zola, Proust. In the words of a student proclamation, any book was condemned to the flames 'which acts subversively on our future or strikes at the root of German thought, the German home and the driving forces of our people.'

"Dr. Goebbels, the new Propaganda Minister, who from now on was to put German culture into a Nazi strait jacket, addressed the students as the burning books turned to ashes. 'The soul of the German people can again express itself. These flames not only illuminate the final end of an old era; they also light up the new.'"

It is against this background of the burning books that I would ask you to look at what I have to say this evening about the art of teaching.

Four centuries before the Berlin students set fire to their heritage, in 1524, Cardinal Wolsey said: "It avails little to have built a school, however magnificent it might be, unless it be furnished with skilful

masters.” It is about these same ‘skilful masters’ or, at least, about the nature of their skill, that I want to speak.

The art of teaching, well or badly practiced, is a universal art constantly employed and never fully understood by the parent, the doctor, the judge, the school teacher . . . or by any of the multitude of people who practice it. A few years after Wolsey, in 1571, Roger Ascham, in his book *THE SCHOOLMASTER*, wrote this: “And one thing I would have the reader consider, in reading this book, that because no schoolmaster have charge of any child before he enter his school, therefore I leave all forward care of their good bringing up to wise and good parents, as a matter not belonging to the schoolmaster. I do appoint this my schoolmaster, then and there, to begin where his office and charge beginneth, which charge lasteth not long but until the scholar be made able to go to the university to proceed in logic, rhetoric and other kinds of learning.” Some of you may wonder, as I do, as Dorothy Sayers does in her book *THE LOST TOOLS OF LEARNING*, when marking assignments, if we were wise to allow logic and rhetoric to become obsolete in our curriculum. I’m sure all of you have red-pencilled sentences beginning: “Everyone agrees that . . .” or “Most people think . . .” — a very doubtful statement.

Four hundred years after Wolsey and Ascham we are still talking about teaching and about teachers; I take this last quotation from a recent book called *NEW APPROACHES IN EDUCATION*: “These devices are matching or multiple choice machines designed for use at the pre-primary and early primary levels and machines which will require a constructed rather than a selected answer. Both these machines are self-checking.” Had Cardinal Wolsey been alive today he might have written: “It avails little to have built a school, however magnificent it might be, unless it be furnished with self-checking teaching machines.”

Dr. Brown, in inviting me to speak this evening, is acting apparently on the assumption that non-self-checking mere human teachers are going to be around for a while.

I should make it quite clear that the art is not one which I think that I have mastered. It is not an art which I think anyone can fully master, any more than one can achieve complete mastery of music or painting. In saying this let me right away draw a distinction between teaching and merely purveying information to a lot of little human tape-recorders. By the same token I would distinguish between learning and merely recording.

Now I know that a great deal of useful and purposeful work has been done in devising and inventing new ways of conveying information to students. It would be foolish not to admit that the teaching machines, school broadcasts, school telecasts, language labs, the Cuisenaire arithmetic sticks, the tape recorders, the movie projectors and the film strips have all done a great deal to make the absorption of facts easier and a great deal more palatable to a great many children. But when the ultimate in teaching machines has been reached, when the most highly qualified professor education has eventually discovered and promulgated the final theory in educational methodology and has described precisely just how the

maturing mind of a child absorbs information, what has, in fact, been achieved? . . . Well, one thing that has *not* been achieved is mastery of the art of teaching.

We, of course, are aware that a great deal of the information we pass on so expertly will be forgotten; we are aware that much of it will prove in the end to be of no particular value to the child concerned. And deep down we are also aware in a somewhat un-nerving way that in the years ahead some of us who pass on this information will be shown to have been misinformed and the information we have passed on will turn out not to be information at all but rather mis-information. Undaunted by this thought, however, it seems to me that we go happily on devising better and better ways of saturating the children in our schools with facts, and pretending confidently that we are getting closer and closer to our goal and nearer and nearer to achieving the ultimate aim of education. The teacher in some future golden age may become a monitor, a person who understands the teaching device that he is manipulating, a person who has the authority to keep the children quiet while the device is working on them, and then lastly a person who supplements the work of the machine by following some special and proven techniques of what will, I have a horrible feeling, be called 'personalized vocal non-automatic instruction'.

I came across a paragraph from the publication "School Soundings" the other day which may indicate the direction both teachers and taught are heading. This is it: "Family living is correlated with every phase of the home economics program but it is also offered as a separate subject. It is a course planned primarily for senior boys and girls and designed to help them plan for marriage and the future. Units include Developing a Personality, Dating Problems, Preparation for Marriage, Children in the Home and Family Adjustments. Child Psychology and Mental Hygiene are included and a field trip to the State Mental Hospital in Danvers climaxes the course."

In these days when talk of population bulges is very common and when our universities across the country are mushrooming, and adding building to building, and money by-laws for schools crop up with startling regularity, there is a common tendency to think of education as a collective affair and I think, in this concept, there is a real danger; it is always dangerous to think of people collectively rather than individually. It is a danger which politicians, advertisers and propagandists never realize until too late, and realize even then with shocked disbelief. It is a danger which teachers must recognize at the beginning and all the time and fight at all costs. It must be recognized, too, by the administrators who have a large say, perhaps sometimes too large a say, in how well the teacher is able to do his job.

What seems to me to be the chief danger to the development of the art of teaching is not that we will be *replaced* by machines, but that we may become, and perhaps are already becoming, machines ourselves. I think there are great, powerful and only partly understood forces at work shaping our behaviour and our thinking; we all use detergents, eat hamburgers, go to football games, watch television, drive cars, and when some-

one admits to using soap, disliking hamburgers, being uninterested in television and riding a bicycle, we are surprised and he is suspected of being queer. We are suffering, I think, from a sort of national 'grey sickness'.

In saying this I am *not* saying what I am getting tired of hearing repeated — that we are a race of conformists, as if there was something wrong and weak about wearing a tie and enjoying *My Fair Lady*. I am not saying this. I *am* suggesting that we are in danger of becoming rather tired mentally — of reaching a point where it is easier to echo Time Magazine's editorial policy than to form, arrange and draw conclusions from our own ideas. This willingness to accept confident assertions unquestioningly and pass on dogmatic ideas which we have never really taken the trouble to scrutinize, can if it infects a teacher be the end of the art of teaching.

I have sometimes thought that one could make a tidy sum by writing a book called either WHAT TO THINK AND SAY, or YOU TOO CAN HAVE OPINIONS! Anyone who foresaw the possibility of being forced to talk about anything other than Ben Casey, the weather or football could look up a thought and select an opinion which he could voice. If it was going to be a long evening he might even look up *two* thoughts. A new edition of the book could be published each year as new thoughts became fashionable and others became dated. I would advertise the book with the slogan: "You're busy enough already. Let us do your thinking for you!"

The artful teacher is, we are often told, an enthusiastic teacher. This enthusiasm, however, does not consist only, or even firstly, of a sort of jolly academic salesmanship. The enthusiasm of the artful teacher must spring from his enthusiasm for his subject, and his enthusiasm for his subject must in turn spring from his ever-growing understanding of it. I came across the following sentence in a book of advice to young teachers: "If he finds himself lacking he must give his nights to study until he can fulfil all reasonable expectations." Now it seems to me that this sentence has chilly implications. The implications surely are that once a teacher has learned his subject sufficiently well to answer any questions that are likely to crop up in class, he can stop. He is now so full of knowledge that he can at last relax. There are many forms of modern art which can be practised for the edification of the artist himself or for a select aesthetic few or for the bamboozlement of an 'arty' set, but the art of teaching must be practised only for the children who are being taught and its success can only be measured, in the end, by them — and they in the end *do* measure us.

Any teacher who regards learning as a disagreeable labour, which he has had to endure in the past in order to become a teacher, but which he can now put aside as a completed chore, will never master the art of teaching, the art of reaching the secret mind of his students. He will never reach their hearts or trigger their imaginations or goad them to further feats of exploration if by his own example he makes it apparent to them that in his own mind he has reached some pleasant academic plateau from which he can lazily, and perhaps even arrogantly, survey the minds below which are still climbing laboriously up. "I cannot conceal my amused admiration," remarked a noble lord of the 18th century, "for the academic aspirations of the ignorant."



The art of teaching consists not merely in knowing more than our students and having some skill of exposition, it lies not merely in our own continuing, enthusiastic search after knowledge. It lies also in the teacher's determination to be a lively, interested and interesting person himself, to resist the infection of the grey sickness of placid mental lethargy.

I suppose every age has tried, rather self-consciously, to describe itself. We live, we say, in a technological age; we also live in a rather neurotic age and our neurosis shows itself in several ways. One of the odd ways in which, it seems to me, we react to our times — despite the vast number of subjects we have to argue about — is being afraid of, or very distrustful of, controversy in our daily lives. We shy away from argument on any *important* issue—in any area where our *real* feelings and beliefs might be aroused or might rouse those of others. Perhaps it is, that living with clamorous newspapers and booming radios and television sets, which every day tell us of the larger controversy on which our very lives may depend, we hesitate to indulge in *private* argument. Be that as it may, it is important that this fear of controversy should never impregnate our teaching. There is no complex and important chapter of human experience which can be explored and taught by one individual to other individuals without, at any rate potentially, evoking controversy.

A few years ago some of you may have seen a television enquiry into the problem of the negro in Canada. It was not, I think, a particularly memorable piece of work, but it was a good plain bit of reporting and it encouraged the negroes being interviewed — they were mainly, if my memory is correct, railway porters — to express certain grievances which were obviously deeply felt. The thing that interested me more than the program itself was the reaction of a good many people to it. These people said in effect: "Oh yes, it's possible that the Canadian negro has certain justifiable grievances, but why drag them out in the open? Why deliberately expose them?" This is the attitude that says: "I close my eyes to poverty, ignorance and intolerance, and because I don't see it, it doesn't exist. I buy immunity to the knowledge of suffering by giving regularly to the Community Chest."

It is perhaps unlikely that any of us here tonight will plough a very deep furrow in the field of human understanding, but I don't think that that mildly sobering reflection should induce us to simply run the plough along the surface without denting the turf at all. I think it might be worth showing the ploughman who succeeds us — our student — that at least we were in the field and we made a few scratches in the earth and, shallow as they may be, they were *our* scratches. To the extent that a teacher deliberately declines to state his personal points of view on an occasion where he should do so, and to defend them, and in the end perhaps to argue about them in a class, to that extent he is denying his own individuality; to that extent he and the teaching machine are drawing closer and closer together.

There are large areas of any school curriculum which *must* obviously be concerned solely with facts. There is nothing controversial about irregular verbs in French or about the multiplication tables; these must be mastered

and learned in the most effective way possible by any technique or device that works. But they must be learned for a purpose beyond the mere learning of them. They must be learned, I think, so that the learner is better equipped, having learned them, to enter a world to which it is the job of the teacher to open the door, a world in which it is not possible to play a role without some mastery of facts, but a world in which facts must be taken for granted and subordinated to something larger.

I think it is not only the job of the teacher, but the joy of the *good* teacher, to introduce the student to the world of ideas. But if, in giving the child the necessary weapons with which to do battle in this new and exciting world, the teacher makes it abundantly clear that he himself is a faceless creature with no ideas of his own or only 'certified' ideas which have been absorbed from teachers' manuals and departments of education, or ideas which must never find expression in a classroom in case they are not shared by everyone else in the room; if, in pointing the youngster toward the forest of ideas, he makes it very clear that he never actually ventures into it himself because it is dark and dangerous, he will succeed either in convincing the child that the world of ideas is not really worth exploring, or will find that the youngster has walked by him contemptuously to explore this new world on his own.

You may, perhaps, think that the world we live in is so full of new and exciting ideas that one could not escape them even if one wanted to; but let me say this: I know of a community in this province, as probably do many of you, in which no radio is allowed, no television, no newspapers — a community in which most of the high school children were unaware that the last federal election was taking place — and this is the year 1962. How can such children learn history?

In the state of Tennessee in 1925 a young teacher by the name of Scopes was put on trial for teaching the theory of evolution, and Clarence Darrow, his defender, wrote after the trial:

"There is reason now for feeling confident that no more States will permit their fanatics to place them in the position of Tennessee . . . It is true that many people did not appreciate the peril that confronted the freedom of education, although the sharp-shooters of bigotry were picking off its victims in our schools and colleges day after day."

A story of the past which could not be repeated in our enlightened age? I regret to say "No!" The premier of one of our large and most important provinces still preaches publicly against the belief in evolution.

The implacable enemy of the teacher is the man who says: "Yes, I want my kids to have schooling but not too *much*." Not so much, he means, that they begin to think for themselves. This is the man who argues: "Learning awakens doubts about the validity of some established ideas; I don't want my established ideas doubted; therefore I don't want the kids to get too much learning."

The art of teaching can, in part, be learned, but like every art it must be given shape through experience, and it must be shaped until it acquires a style peculiar to the teacher. We don't expect all writers to write alike,

and we are quite prepared to agree that two authors may be equally good though quite different. We apply this flexibility of judgment to medicine, architecture, acting, gardening and politics — to a hundred varied human activities, and if it applies to all these spheres of endeavour which involve one individual dealing with many other individuals, and dealing with them in a way which can, and often does, affect their lives, then it must be applied to teaching.

I would like to read you a paragraph from the section of an education book which deals with the reason for teaching English Literature: "Since a feeling of pleasure accompanies any activity which is progressing smoothly, it follows that the teacher must do everything in his power to facilitate the activity of reading. In other words, the teacher must prepare the pupil for the reading of a selection; this preparation will be concerned with such matters as the meaning of words, the significance of images, the movement of rhythm." That is the end of the quotation.

Well, first of all, I question that "a feeling of pleasure" does in fact accompany "any activity which is progressing smoothly." There are many activities which may progress smoothly without giving pleasure — tooth-drilling, hog-slaughtering, ditch-digging or signing cheques are some examples. And, secondly, who says that the student needs to be prepared for the reading of a selection? There are lots of selections which should, I think, be thrown at him with no prior soothing words or explanations of 'images' and 'rhythm'.

My point here is not that *I* teach poetry correctly and *he* teaches it wrongly; it is that there is no "correct" way of teaching poetry. There is no *correct* way of teaching anything any more than there is a right way of doing up your shoelaces or a correct dress for a woman.

The art of teaching must surely belong in that somewhat vague and large area of 'the liberal arts' — I need not say, with an election so close, that I spell the word with a small 'l'.

Professor Nehmier, the Greek professor at Dartmouth University, says this: "It is sometimes said that liberalism is but the disguise worn by subversive agents; this may be true, but it is not a valid argument against liberalism. Even the most unscrupulous salesman assumes the appearance of honesty; that is no argument against honesty. Nor is it true, as is often said, that the liberal man is the indifferent man and that no one is liberal about what he ardently believes. For liberals the desire to think one's thoughts and to express them is itself a passion as in the mind of the effective teacher."

The artful teacher with something of this passion must be aware — almost constantly aware — of three things: talk, truth and time.

As for the first of these, talk, I think one could say that the fondness of the class for the sound of the teacher's voice varies inversely to the fondness of the teacher for the sound of his own voice. One can often do a lot of teaching with very little talking. Lincoln's speech at Gettysburg lasted about a tenth as long as most of our periods.

The second awareness is truth. We must make the youngster aware of the difficulty of achieving exactness and accuracy while at the same time awakening his conscience to the fact that he must get as close as he can.

The third awareness of the teacher must be time. The youngster will grow up in spite of us and his attitudes will tend to harden into shape. The teacher can have something to do with the shaping if he makes the best use of the time during which he has the child. If he fritters this time away he misses his chance and he cheats the child into the bargain.

The art of teaching is an art which we can never fully understand until we fully understand ourselves and I suspect we are a very long way off being able to do that. It is an art which becomes more and more elusive as the teacher becomes more and more aware of the gap between what he thinks he *should* be able to do and what, in fact, he is doing.

What is the art of teaching? What is this art for the practising of which Socrates was condemned to take the hemlock? It is, or at any rate can be, a noble art, practised in its day by many noble men. It must, in the end, be the art by which the going generation makes the coming generation aware of what has gone before — of the sum of knowledge and understanding that we have so far acquired. But it must go beyond this if we are to do our duty by the children who are entrusted for all these many hours each year to our care. The artful teacher must, in the end, not narrow their minds but widen them, not increase their prejudices, but teach them to suspend prejudice; he must, in short, show them that the world is a curious place, that man has been in it for only a very short time in its long, whirling history, and that man's role is to scratch for knowledge and to claw for understanding and to discover ever more about the place where he lives, about his own surroundings, about his own past, about his own future and above all about himself. But the teacher who pretends that this can be done by a machine or can be a peaceful, uncontroversial placid classroom activity, which begins at nine o'clock in the morning and ends at four, is blinding or blinkering the child to the excitement ahead. It is our job to encourage our students to stand on our shoulders, however narrow or wobbly they may be, so that they can see further than we have been able to see and understand more fully than we have understood and practice on generations to come, with a new awareness, the art of teaching.

If the students, who gathered on that fearful and fateful night on Unter den Linden to burn the books, had been given to understand, by their teachers, something of the real nature of the ideas which the books contained, they might not have burned them. And today, if we are to hold off the powers of darkness, it must be with shafts of light — the light of truth as we see it, the light of the controversy that seeks an answer — one idea sparking another until, hopefully, a fire is lit, a fire which makes clear what was before in shadow — a fire which kindles hope rather than consumes it.



PROCEDURES USED IN THE SELECTION OF STUDENTS  
ENTERING THE FIRST YEAR OF A COURSE LEADING  
TO A TEACHING CERTIFICATE IN CANADA FOR  
THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1961 - 62

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In recent years entrance requirements for candidates for teacher-training have received a good deal of comment. This study was made for the purpose of securing current information on examinations, tests and related procedures used in assessing the suitability of students wishing to prepare for teaching.

The study was of the survey type using a questionnaire to obtain the information. The questionnaire was sent early in June 1962 to 25 places throughout Canada where students are given their training for teaching. It was sent late in the year so that information about testing and evaluation procedures used throughout the academic year would be available. The aim was to concentrate on institutions where the language of instruction is English. It was felt that in the French-speaking institutions the tests used, especially the standardized tests, might be significantly different from those used in their English counterparts. The sampling was restricted as well to institutions where students register as students in education or teacher-training rather than where students wait until completing considerable work in academic subjects and then proceed to register for professional training.

Of the 25 requests made for information 16 replied. Of these one reply was to the effect that the study did not apply to them because of the nature of their program. One institution returned the questionnaire unanswered. It would appear, also, that the questionnaire should not have been sent to one university because the nature and terms of this study did not apply to them. On this basis the original sample is reduced to 22. Of the places from which replies might have been expected, six are located in the same province. However, replies from other teachers' colleges in this province are probably representative of the circumstances determining admission during the 1961-62 academic year. There was at least one reply from nine of the ten provinces, and a response from all institutions in six provinces was received. In the remaining three provinces from which replies were received there was a partial response.

When the questionnaire was sent respondents were told that in making the compilation of the findings the identity of a particular place of training would not be revealed.

*Academic Requirements*

A basic requirement for admission to preparation for teaching is academic achievement as evidenced in provincial examinations. The nature and extent of this requirement varies, of course, from province to province within Canada.

Replies received from three provinces showed that the entrance requirement is the same for the student teachers as for the students seeking entrance to university. This requirement is commonly referred to as matriculation standing. In two of these three provinces all teacher-training is done in conjunction with degree work. Another province is asking for matriculation standing for the first time this present academic year, 1962-63. Teachers from three other provinces are being trained within the framework of institutions preparing students for degrees. Nevertheless they need not have matriculation standing to gain admittance. A characteristic difference between the requirements for matriculation credit and the requirements for entrance to teacher-training is primarily in terms of optional courses. The students preparing for matriculation standing must study another language in addition to English.

No inquiry was made about references or medical examination required.

### *Standardized Tests*

In two provinces standardized tests are administered prior to the time of entrance for training. The same test was used by those reporting, and it is known as the School and College Ability Tests. This test was administered during the late winter or early spring months of the school year. There is no evidence that the results obtained on this test serve as a significant factor in the determination of qualifications for admission. After registration at the place of training the use of standardized tests is much more extensive.

Twelve of the replies referred to standardized tests of academic aptitude or learning capacity being used in the fall after the students had arrived at the universities and colleges. September is the month mentioned most frequently as the time when the tests are administered. On some replies it was stated that the months of October, November and December are used, too.

According to the data supplied considerable uniformity exists in the tests selected. Included are the Otis tests, the American Council on Education Psychological Examinations and Dominion Group Tests of Learning Capacity, in this order of frequency. In addition to testing for learning capacity some form of a test in English was reported on six questionnaires, and indications are that achievement tests in mathematics are being used in a similar number of institutions. Not all these tests, however, are standardized. Also the use of reading tests was reported, and judging from some replies received there may be an attempt to assess speech as well.

In general, unsatisfactory performance on standardized or other entrance tests appears to be used with caution as a reason for requiring students to withdraw from training. Two replies pointed out that students considered to make an unsatisfactory performance on more than two out of five tests are required to withdraw. Other comments were that the more common practice is to advise or rather counsel students whose results are particularly poor in the tests to withdraw. This practice is sometimes

referred to as "counselling out." There is, apparently, a good deal of difficulty in establishing cut-off points or scores.

Apparently standardized tests are used infrequently late in the year to assess the status of students. Based on the information given by the respondents the cost of the standardized tests used averages about 30 cents per student. The range in the costs indicated was from eight cents per student to 58 cents. These figures indicate only the cost of the tests and make no allowance for the time spent administering or scoring them.

According to the persons answering the questionnaire, standardized tests are used primarily for purposes other than to evaluate or reassess knowledge of subject matter. Apparently it is accepted that provincial government examinations are adequate measures of knowledge of subject matter. It was felt by some respondents that a certain element of duplication may result from using both the standardized tests and the examinations sponsored by Departments of Education throughout Canada. No mention was made on the questionnaires that in some areas the results on standardized tests are used in preference to the provincial examination results. One comment made was: "Research shows the Grade XII matriculation average to be the best prediction of university success yet found. We have a considerable body of research evidence."

### *Interviews*

The questionnaire inquired about the use of an interview in selecting students for admission for training. Interviews characteristically have highly subjective aspects about them. They may either be planned carefully and utilize a schedule or form which is completed during or after the interview, or they may be quite non-directive in their approach.

Four of the returned questionnaires indicated that an interview is a regular procedure used in deciding to admit students. In another reply it was stated that only with older students is an interview required, and this is also a factor in deciding whether to accept a student or not. Several respondents remarked that an interview will be used only whenever special doubts or circumstances exist relating to the advisability of admitting a student to training for teaching.

In one province it is apparently a duty of superintendents to interview prospective teacher trainees during the spring of the year. On two reports specific mention was made of interviews held in the secondary schools and at the location of the teachers' college from March on through the spring and summer. In Ontario the form dealing with conditions of admission to the teachers' colleges states that "Each applicant for admission to a Teachers' College shall be interviewed by a representative of a Teachers' College Committee of Selection . . ." Three of the respondents in one province each sent a copy of the interview form used. One form asks for information of a general or routine nature which includes a section or space at the end for the interviewer's comments, presumably subjective in nature. The other two are more specific and require the interviewer to make ratings on a five-point rating scale to be used in assessing a variety of characteristics such as appearance, voice, personality and other attributes, the majority of which are described or elucidated upon for the benefit

of the person responsible for doing the rating. One form provides for assessments to be made in terms of employing the normal curve of distribution. One form asks that the person responsible for the rating check one of "accept," "additional interview" or "recommend rejection."

The replies from the majority of the respondents indicated that little practice was made of interviewing students on a systematic basis after arriving at the place of training. Where an interview is a part of admission policy students who missed the earlier interview receive it after arriving at the institution. Apparently interviews in some instances may be on a group basis for the purpose of giving students information to assist them in selecting the area of specialization they may follow.

On the basis of the questionnaires returned only one return indicated a general policy of interviewing students after enrolling for the course. Here apparently a prepared form is used with staff consultation prior to interviewing, and mention was made that additional interviewing sometimes took place, especially when it was felt unusually good or poor prospects were encountered.

It is difficult to know the influence the interview has on the actual decision as to whether a student should be admitted to the teacher-training course. To the question "Are students who are otherwise qualified required to withdraw as a result of interview?" There were four replies in the negative while two responses were "yes"; another replied that it was "rarely" and other respondents said that doubtful applicants would be referred to the Department of Education.

#### *Performance Required*

The questionnaire asked under what conditions were students required to withdraw from the course. The answers to this question showed a lack of uniformity in the policies. There may be a standard in terms of an overall percentage or in terms of number of courses failed. In one university students in education are asked to withdraw when they have a percentage below 30 per cent in the Christmas or mid-year examinations. According to another return a similar policy applies when the marks are below 40 per cent. In one province students who fail more than six courses in their first examinations are required to withdraw whereas those with five and six failures are advised to withdraw. On one reply the comment read "Counselled out only—not required to leave unless there are exceptional circumstances."

#### *Summary and Conclusions*

The problem with which this study has been chiefly concerned is what procedures are used in the selection of students entering the first year of a course leading to a teaching certificate. There is a combination of various methods of selection, but academic standing is the essential guide in deciding who is qualified to enter teacher-training courses. In this respect in several provinces the level of attainment required for entrance is similar to that required of students entering other courses where the standard of admission is matriculation.

Testing programmes differ considerably from institution to institution. For example intelligence tests may be the only ones used in some places



whereas in others there is an attempt to assess, in addition to learning capacity, English, reading, arithmetic and speech. However the student's unsatisfactory performance in a test or tests will not necessarily require his withdrawal. In fact only a very few places of training appear to require students to discontinue their training if their level of performance on the test is considered to be unsatisfactory.

The interview, a stage sometimes used in the process of selection, is not used to any great extent. According to the data obtained, it is sometimes not used at all, and occasionally but rarely is it used to reject an applicant. Apparently, with very few exceptions that is, students are more likely to be counselled out of teacher-training than to be flatly rejected as a result of their interview.

Standardized tests do not appear to be used late in the first year of training to assess the development of students. Nor do the universities or colleges have any standard pattern to follow regarding the dismissal of a student after he has begun to take the teacher-training course.

## Thesis Abstract

### ASPECTS OF WALDORF EDUCATION

George Kroecker

September, 1962

The Waldorf System of Education is, as far as can be determined, largely unknown in this country. The books or articles dealing with Dr. Steiner's anthroposophical-philosophical pedagogical ideas are practically non-existent in our Universities and Pedagogical Institutions. In fact, the pedagogy which is based on Dr. Steiner's philosophy is better known in European countries and in the United States, where a number of schools are functioning and rapidly increasing in number.

#### *Purpose*

The purpose of this work is to gather information and to attempt to present a clear picture of the following aspects of Waldorf Education:

1. A brief biographical sketch of Dr. Steiner
2. The underlying philosophy of Waldorf Education
3. The principles and practices of the system
4. A general view of the curriculum
5. Reasons why this educational movement is spreading rapidly.

#### *Methods*

The methods employed in this research were mainly two-fold. A thorough study of the literature and writings about Dr. Steiner and his educational ideals and practices was undertaken; and the writer was given the opportunity to attend a study conference at Highland Hall School in North Hollywood, California. Contact with persons directly involved in Waldorf Education was possible, and much time and effort was spent in personal interviews with the staff, and talking with supporters of the system such as Dr. H. von Baravalle. The discussion groups and lectures as well as actual participation in the work carried on at the school provided valuable information. Their library facilities were generously placed at the writer's disposal.

From then on, information was gathered by writing to various authorities and schools throughout the Western World. Most enquiries were promptly answered by the various schools, and much information was supplied in the form of further directives and prospectuses which dealt mostly with their aims, curricula and operations of particular schools. Newspapers were very cooperative in supplying back issues in which articles and/or commentaries about Waldorf Education appeared.

#### *Findings*

Nowhere could a work be located that treated Waldorf Education as a complete, thorough study. Many works have been written and published on the various facets of the school system. The Waldorf Schools, or Steiner Schools as they are frequently called, reveal many differences in philosophy, principles, practices, and curricula from any other modern

practising educational system. It is obvious that the schools are increasing in number and that their ideas on education are being accepted more widely as they become known. It is an educational system which is based neither on materialism nor intellectualism, but tends rather to counteract these forces with its emphasis on the spiritual worth and the freedom of man. This is probably one of the greatest causes of the growth of the Waldorf System.

In all the commentaries that have been written, adverse criticism is conspicuously lacking.

## Thesis Abstract

# AN INVESTIGATION OF VERBAL-PERFORMANCE DIFFERENCES IN CHILDREN OF AVERAGE INTELLIGENCE

by

Robert Iverach Scarth

### *The Problem*

Psychologists in clinical settings have frequently attributed clinical significance to a Verbal-Performance discrepancy on the WISC. The present study was designed to look for personality, educational and environmental differences between a higher Verbal group and a lower Verbal group of elementary school children. All the children were clinic referrals with Full Scale IQ's within the normal range.

### *The Procedure*

The two groups were selected from a population of 373 subjects referred to the Child Guidance Clinic of Greater Winnipeg. There were 65 subjects in the higher Verbal group and 64 subjects in the lower Verbal group. Three factors (clinic record, school record, and home situation) were analyzed by using the chi-square technique. Several personality, educational and environmental differences were found.

### *The Conclusions*

1. The lower Verbal child in this study was academically retarded throughout most of his school career. He was usually referred by the schools because of poor achievement and aggressive behaviour. He required a significant amount of clinical help which consisted of reading therapy, speech therapy and often social work assistance. He was usually a middle child in his family and his parent worked in a non-professional occupation. There was some evidence that boys, rather than girls, had lower Verbal scores.
2. The higher Verbal child did well in school originally but failed to maintain this success in later years. There was a slight tendency for this child to be recommended for psychological assessment by other clinical personnel. The higher Verbal child was usually first-born to parents in the professional and semi-professional occupations. There was some evidence that girls, rather than boys, had higher Verbal scores. Evidence from the literature was used to indicate that the higher Verbal child was usually more neurotically unstable or more inclined to be neurologically impaired.
3. It was concluded that a wide discrepancy between the two scales of the WISC was symptomatic of differences in traits, other than intellectual, between the higher Verbal child and the lower Verbal child. These differences were considered to be of major importance to the clinician, the educator and the parent when assessing and treating the personal adjustment and school progress of the child.

## Thesis Abstract

# A FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS WHO WERE MEMBERS OF THE INAUGURAL MAJOR WORK CLASSES IN WINNIPEG

by

Naomi Louise Hersom

Winnipeg, Manitoba

May, 1962

## *The Problem*

The Winnipeg School Division offers a special program for intellectually gifted students in grades four through nine in its Major Work classes. When students who had been enrolled in the special classes entered high school along with equally gifted students from regular classes it was proposed to compare the high school performance of the Major Work class students with that of their non-Major Work class peers.

## *Selection of Subjects*

The Major Work sample group was drawn from the sixty students who were members of grades four and five Major Work classes in September, 1954. At the conclusion of the program in grade nine, those students who registered in Winnipeg senior high schools for grade ten constituted the sample. The control group students were matched for sex and junior high school attended. The two groups did not differ significantly with respect to chronological age, intelligence, and academic achievement in grade nine. A total of forty-five pairs of students was used in the study.

## *Treatment of the Data*

*The criterion measures*—The marks obtained on grade ten school examinations at Easter, and on grade eleven Department of Education examinations in June, were used to measure academic achievement. All marks were standardized to Z-scores for purposes of comparison.

The *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* was administered to both groups while in senior high school.

The Quincy Development Project *Behaviour Description Charts* were completed by the homeroom teachers of the students involved in the study.

*Analyses of the data*—The significance of the differences between the mean Z-scores of Major Work group students and the mean Z-scores of control group students was computed by the *t*-test after homogeneity of variances had been proved by the *F* test. The *t*-test was also used to test differences between mean scores on the *Watson-Glaser*.

*Critical Thinking Appraisal*—The chi-square test was applied to the ratings made by classroom teachers on the *Behaviour Description Chart*.

## *Findings*

1. There is a significant difference between intellectually gifted students who have been members of Major Work classes and intellectually gifted



students who have not been members of Major Work classes in high school achievement as indicated by examination marks in grade ten Literature, grade eleven Literature, and grade ten French.

2. There is no significant difference between intellectually gifted students who have been members of Major Work classes and intellectually gifted students who have not been members of Major Work classes in high school achievement as indicated by examination marks in grade ten Composition, Geography, Mathematics, Science, and grade eleven Composition, History, Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics, and French.
3. The difference between groups on intellectually gifted students who have been members of Major Work classes and intellectually gifted students who have not been members of Major Work classes in overall academic achievement in grade ten as indicated by average standard scores closely approached the five per cent level of statistical significance.
4. There is no significant difference between intellectually gifted students who have been members of Major Work classes and intellectually gifted students who have not been members of Major Work classes in the ability to think critically as measured by the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal*.
5. There is no significant difference between the numbers of intellectually gifted students who have been members of Major Work classes and the numbers of intellectually gifted students who have not been members of Major Work classes in various categories of personality traits as rated by classroom teachers on the *Behaviour Description Chart*. The traits rated were: leadership, withdrawal, and aggressiveness.

### Conclusions

The findings of this study suggest that the Major Work program in Winnipeg has succeeded in helping intellectually gifted students make better use of their talents in high school. Where special emphasis in the Major Work classes has been placed on Literature by means of Reading Clubs, for example, and on French, through early instruction, high school academic achievement in these subject areas has been improved even after special class treatment had been discontinued.

The fact that gifted students from Major Work classes were not rated differently from gifted students from regular classes on behaviour traits by their homeroom teachers in high school indicates that the special program has not adversely affected the personal development of its members.

Academic achievement in high school falls short of measuring the effectiveness of the Major Work program. Such intangible benefits as the opportunity to develop leadership abilities, to carry on independent research, to practise oral skills, to benefit by the stimulation and challenge of associating with a group of intellectually gifted students do not lend themselves to measurement.

## Thesis Abstract

### SOME ASPECTS OF THE TERMINAL COURSE OFFERED AT A WINNIPEG HIGH SCHOOL

by

Frank Isaac

Winnipeg, Manitoba

December, 1961

#### *Purpose of the Study*

The purpose of this study is to report on the development of the Terminal Course which was designed to meet the needs of students of high school age who were unable to cope with the regular school program. An account is given of: (1) the establishment of the Terminal Course in Sisler High School; (2) an examination of the past achievement, I.Q. scores, standardized test results, and final marks of the students enrolled in the Course; (3) an outline of the program offered to the students in each subject area; and (4) individual follow-up reports on the post-school activities and achievements of ninety-two former Terminal Course students.

The follow-up study was undertaken to determine whether the experiences gained from the Terminal Course had been worthwhile to the students and whether any trends in their post-school life offer helpful suggestions for the planning of future programs.

#### *Limitations*

Only the first two classes of Terminal students at Sisler High School were included in this study. No consideration was given to the Terminal Course program offered in other schools.

#### *Outline of the Study*

Recommendations of the Special Committee of Principals set up to study the problem of numerous failures in Grades IX and X, and early withdrawals from school, were considered; school records concerning the establishment of the Terminal Course were consulted; and subsequent reports by the Head of the Terminal Department at Sisler High School to the Superintendent of Winnipeg Schools were also studied. Further information was obtained from personal interviews with Terminal Course teachers to determine the exact nature of the program offered to the students. Teachers' records, school registers, and medical and attendance record cards were consulted to obtain the statistical information concerning the students. The follow-up interviews were conducted through the means of telephone conversations. The findings from these interviews were summarized under three headings: further training of students since leaving the Terminal Course, employment experiences, and marital status.

#### *Observations Based on the Follow-up Reports*

From the information gained through the follow-up interviews, the following general observations were made: (1) The boys expressed a need for further training in various fields. (2) The girls desired further instruction in commercial subjects. (3) The students who had withdrawn failed to improve their qualifications after leaving the Terminal Course.

(4) The girls readily found employment in office work. (5) The jobs which the boys obtained were of unskilled or semi-skilled nature. (6) Most Terminal students rendered satisfactory service at work. Sixty per cent of them were still at their first place of employment at the time of the survey. (7) Fewer graduate boys were unemployed and they earned higher wages than did those who had withdrawn from the Course. (8) The wages of the girls who had withdrawn were a little higher than those of the graduate girls but only because they had been at work for a longer period of time. (9) The Terminal Course students tended to marry soon after leaving school.

### *Major Conclusions*

The main conclusions of this study are: (1) Many students who appear likely to withdraw from school even before entering high school, may receive considerable benefit from an additional period of training at school. (2) Typing skills are valuable to the Terminal girls. Eighty-one per cent of the girls employed worked in offices and the majority of them used these skills in their daily work. (3) The value of typing in the boys' program is uncertain since none of the boys made any use of his typing skills at work. (4) Students should be encouraged not to drop out of school, since few of the drop-outs undertook further training of any kind and many of them were unemployed at the time of the survey. (5) A diversified industrial arts program is of value to the boys because a good number of them found employment in a variety of tasks at which they used tools and skills familiar to them from their shopwork. (6) Many students, particularly the drop-outs, had difficulty in finding employment. Assistance in job placement and further counselling after leaving school would be of benefit to them. (7) The tendency to marry early emphasizes the importance of the Home Economics program for the girls. (8) By making it possible for these students to participate in a realistic high school program, rather than be compelled to repeat junior high grades or drop out of school, the Terminal Course has proved to be of value in helping these young people achieve a fuller and more satisfactory life.

## Thesis Abstract

### SOME FACTORS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES PRIOR TO CONFEDERATION

by

Keith Wilson

Winnipeg, Manitoba

June, 1961

#### *Purpose*

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate the part played by various factors in the growth and development of English-language colleges and universities in the four provinces of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick prior to Confederation in 1867.

#### *Sources of data*

Information was obtained from relevant documentary materials including the dispatches of the Colonial Secretaries and Lieutenant-Governors, the proceedings of the various Legislative Assemblies, the speeches of church leaders and politicians, proceedings of the governing bodies of the colleges and universities, and miscellaneous memoirs and letters.

#### *Outline of Study and Conclusions*

Three factors were of considerable importance in the foundation and development of early universities in Canada. Consideration of politics, religion and geography all played a significant part.

It was early considered politically expedient to provide facilities for higher liberal and professional education in Canada, lest the future leaders of the nation be otherwise compelled to seek higher education in the United States where they might return imbued with republican ideals.

To a governing class which believed in a concept of an established church, patriotism and adherence to the Church of England were closely related. It was therefore argued that higher education should be under the control of the Church of England even although dependent to a large extent on the provision of public funds. The growth of the nonconformist denominations led inevitably to dissension in the fields of education, and protests were increasingly heard in the Legislative Assemblies where the first stirrings of agitation toward responsible government were becoming apparent.

Geographical considerations, also, were of obvious importance in the choice of location and in the later development of universities in a vast land with a widely scattered population and poorly developed communications.

These three factors, at all times closely inter-related, were responsible to a large degree for the eventual growth of secularism and for the excessive multiplicity of institutions which still characterizes Canadian higher learning.

The influence of politics, religion and geography having been discussed, attention was finally turned to a consideration of the attempts made by the universities to adapt themselves to the changing conditions and demands of society in the years prior to Confederation.

## TITLES OF MINOR THESES

LEMAIRE, Marcelle Antoinette (Sr. Paul de la Croix)

"Further Discussion on the Manitoba School Question"

SPACK, Michael

"A Comparison of Adult Education in England and Canada"

HAWRYLUK, John Martin

"An Analysis of Selected Submissions to the Royal Commission on Education Regarding Public Support to Private and Parochial Schools in Manitoba."

DE JERSEY, Harold

"A Study of the Comparative Influence of England and the United States on Education in Manitoba"

GOEBEL, Alfred George

"The Influence of the Church in the Development of the Educational Systems of France and England"

GARDNER, John Hughes

"A Study of Some Significant Aspects of Teacher Load in Saskatchewan particularly as it is Related to Voluntary Activities on the Part of Teachers in the Community"

ARNOTT, Ethel

"A Guide for Enrichment of the Grade Seven Social Studies Programme in Manitoba Schools"



# FACULTY OF EDUCATION

## EDUCATION I — 1962-63

Albertson, Herbert Helgi	Laser, Alfred
Armstrong, Donald Victor	Liew, Kwong-Hua
Asgeirson, Carol Lynne	Loewen, Mrs. Paula
Bailey, George Murray Roche	Lubosch, Erica Helen
Balcaen, Hubert Louis	Lundy, Gail Patricia
Baron, Richard Frank	Mackie, Gail Elizabeth
Bloomer, Mrs. Sheila	McDougall, Colin Terrance
Brett, Joan Elizabeth	MacDougall, Margaret Elizabeth
Buggey, Susan	McFadyen, Patricia Lynne
Bukowski, Christine Emily	McKenzie, David Barry
Butler, Roy Leslie	McMullin, Barbara Eleanor
Carlson, Donald Ray	Melnyk, Edward Anthony
Cohen, Carole Lynn	Mercury, Catherine Joan
Cook, Lillian Evelyn Dovell	Milne, Donald Gordon
Crocker, Marilyn Ross	Mohammed, Esau Peter
Dale, Diane Lorraine	Moscovitch, Jerry Julius
Denham, William Brent M.	Nightingale, Harold David
Dmytryshyn, Harry Anthony	Ostermann, Hubert Joseph
Dugdale, Penelope Rae	Overland, Earl Leland
Elliott, Wayne Edgar	Painchaud, Robert Paul
Evans, Margaret Louise	Pelzer, Herbert
Fast, Lora Anne	Peturson, Lincoln Jorgen
Ferguson, Arthur David	Pistawka, Mary Anne
Ferries, Digby David	Polson, Myrna De-Anne
Fields, Gale Anne	Pony-Kalfon, Mrs. Germaine
Forde, Cynthia Eleanor	Rademaker, John Dennis
Fromson, Ronald David	Reiach, Charles Thomas
Galay, Theodore Alexander	Rosen, Harvey
Ganetsky, Walter	Rozniatowski, David William
Germain, Florence Irene	Ruff, Wayne Adam
Gerstmar, Kenneth Edward	Sharratt, Kenneth Orrin
Gilbert, Mrs. Patricia Lois	Skulsky, Bluma Annette
Gopalkrishna, Cheppudira P.	Slobodzian, Carol Elaine
Gottfried, Harvey Albert	Smith, Harold Goldwin
Grattan, Robert Edward	Snider, Ronald Neil
Green, Kenneth Allan	Spratt, Gladys Ann
Grinchuk, Evelyn Diana	Szalanski, Lawrence Barry
Grobb, Ann Marie	Taylor, Jo-Ann Moore
Hamilton, Gary Carr	Taylor, Heather Maureen
Hartley, Thomas Cordell	Tellier, Beatrice Fernand
Hawn, Walter Christopher	Thiessen, Dolores Evangeline
Heinen, Edward Henry	Thomson, Alistair MacDonald
Henderson, Andrew Leigh	Thurston, George Stanley
Ho, Jennifer O-Ching	Toews, Wilma Ruth
Hogue, Paul Ernest	Torack, Geri Joan
Jabs, Edmund	Trump, John Brian
Johnson, Donald Wesley	Tsang, Evangeline
Johnson, Rosemary	Valgardson, William Dennis
Kapey, Patricia Ann	Way, Doreen Lillian
Karr, Mrs. Sandra Margaret	Websdale, Ronald Garth
Kaye, Alan Wilson	White, Helen Diane
Kelm, Eleanor Diane	Wilson, Patricia Ann
Kelsall, William Lester	Wodchyc, Paul Dennis
Kirby, Mrs. Marie Anne M.	Wolfe, Norbert Joseph
Knudsen, Dorthea Joan	Wood, Margaret Lynne
Koffman, Gordon	Yaworski, Vera
Kool, Rose Wilhelmina	

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### SPECIAL SUMMER SESSION — EDUCATION I — 1962

Antoniak, Ariel Marie	Kendrick, Reginald Thomas	Proudfoot, John Charles
Beaudette, Jeanine Liliane (Sister M. Helene Therese)	Kennedy, Donna Lee	Robertson, Mrs. Eliz. Patricia
Best, Philip Robert	King, Colleen Margaret	Rodgers, Robert Atkinson
Bouchard, Hubert Joseph Isidore	Kirbyson, Robert Wm. Wayne	Rostek, Joanne Kathryn
Bradford, William Gary	Klassen, John Edward	Rousseau, Madeleine (Sister M. Jean Olivier)
Buss, Richard Ernest	Klayh, Walter William	Roy, Richard Thomas
Coates, John Murray	Kolisnyk, Lydia Doris	Rumball, Wilfrid Gladstone
Colquhoun, Glen Demont	Kozak, Victor Nestor	Ryan, Russell Wilson
Constant, Raymond Albert	Lever, Edna May	Rybachuk, Sylvia Ann
Curtis, David William	Lithown, Robert Joseph	Schaefer, Doreen Alberta
Davidson, Rosalie Ann	Lyons, Margery Irene	Schmelz, Karen Irene
Davies, Clair Humphrey	Lysecki, James Edward	Schroeder, Irmgard Ilse
Doern, Russell John	MacDonald, Gerald George	Schulz, William Edward
English, Florence Gertrude	McDonald, Lelonie Marie	Searle, Russell Ashley
Eyvindson, Marilyn Ida	McDonald, Robert Alexander	Shirtliff, Dorothy Marie
Favelle, Ida-Lou Margaret	McIntosh, John Spence	Siemens, Donald Lawrence
Finnie, Roslyn Margaret	McKenzie, Barbara Joan	Sigurdson, Elizabeth Ann
Francois, Eveline Helene	Maes, Yvonne Marie (Sister Nathalie Mary)	Sveinson, Mrs. Marguerite Frances
Funk, Alvin Harold	Meush, Anatole Augustine	Thomas, Carleton Alfred Charles
Funk, Paul Edward	Mohammed, Ovey Nelson	Turnbull, Ian Denys
Goossen, Mary Jane	Muirhead, Margaret Ann	Vasey, Rose Gwendolyn
Gourluck, Russell William	Munro, Marjorie Eileen	Vinet, Robert Gary
Grafton, Margaret Yvonne	Naylor, Mrs. Betty Alice	Volland, Mrs. Eva Margaret
Greasley, John Robert	Nelson, Andrea Gail	Warnica, Earle Joseph Lenard
Halldorson, Kenneth	Nichol, Lyle James	Wawrykow, Waldi Donald
Hamelynck, Charles Henry	Novotony, Aldrich Joseph	Weiss, Donald Michael
Hanuschuk, Mary	Parker, Brian Addison	Weizel, Dennis David
Helgason, Christine Emily	Penner, John	Wiebe, Howard George
Hersak, Arnold Theodore	Perron, Keith Maurice	Windus, Beverly Pearl
Hnilo, Georgina Adrienne	Peterman, Mrs. Frances Mary	Wirsch, Arthur
Holmlund, Dennis Vernon	Philips, Diane Vivienne	Yeo, Gordon Dale
Jackson, Mrs. Susan Beatrice		Zabrowsky, Violet Joan

# Summer School Time Table

## Education Courses — 1963

### 8:30 a.m. - 10:15 a.m.

Ed. 502	<i>Child Development</i>	- - - - -	Mr. Morris Hirsch <i>Child Guidance Clinic, Winnipeg.</i>
Ed. 516	<i>The Teaching of Social Studies (Sec.)</i>	- - -	Prof. C. J. Jaenen <i>History Department, United College.</i>
Ed. 519	<i>The Teaching of French (Sec.)</i>	- - - - -	Mr. R. R. Roy <i>Supervisor of French Instruction, Winnipeg Public Schools.</i>
Ed. 731	<i>School Organization and Administration</i>	- -	Mr. Arthur Wright <i>Principal of Magee Secondary School, Vancouver.</i>
Ed. 724	<i>Psychology of Adolescence</i>	- - - - -	Prof. John Clake <i>Psychology Department, United College.</i>

### 10:30 a.m. - 12:15 p.m.

Ed. 501	<i>Advanced Educational Psychology</i>	- - - - -	Dr. C. J. Robson <i>Head, Psychology Department, United College.</i>
Ed. 505	<i>Achievement Testing</i>	- - - - -	Dr. Arthur Storey <i>Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.</i>
Ed. 515	<i>The Teaching of English (Sec.)</i>	- - - - -	Dr. Sidney Warhaft <i>Department of English, University of Manitoba.</i>
Ed. 707	<i>Advanced Psychology of Learning</i>	- - - - -	Mr. David R. Olson <i>Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.</i>
Ed. 730	<i>Principles and Practices of Curriculum Construction</i>	-	Mr. H. B. Gough <i>Director of Curriculum, St. John's, Newfoundland.</i>

### 1:45 p.m. - 3:30 p.m.

Ed. 521	<i>The Teaching of Art (Sec.)</i>	- - - - -	Prof. Gissur Eliasson <i>School of Art, University of Manitoba.</i>
Ed. 523	<i>The Teaching of Physical Education (Sec.)</i>	- -	Prof. A. J. Fraser <i>Department of Physical Education, University of Manitoba.</i>
Ed. 535	<i>Adult Education</i>	- - - - -	Prof. A. S. R. Tweedie <i>Department of Adult Education &amp; Extension, University of Manitoba.</i>
Ed. 540	<i>Guidance and Counselling</i>	- - - - -	Mr. J. C. Duncan <i>Administrative Assistant, Winnipeg Public Schools.</i>

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